# Vitamin E and the Risk of Prostate Cancer The Selenium and Vitamin E Cancer Prevention Trial (SELECT) 

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IFETIME RISK OF PROSTATE CANcer in the United States is currently estimated to be $16 \%$. ${ }^{1}$ Although most cases are found at an early, curable stage, treatment is costly and urinary, sexual, and bowelrelated adverse effects are common. ${ }^{2}$ Even men who choose active surveillance as an initial management strategy face anxiety, uncertain prognosis, and a measurable risk of sepsis with fol-low-up biopsies, ${ }^{3}$ and more than onethird of those who initially defer therapy are ultimately treated. ${ }^{4,5}$ With such a

## Author Video Interview available at www.jama.com.


#### Abstract

Context The initial report of the Selenium and Vitamin E Cancer Prevention Trial (SELECT) found no reduction in risk of prostate cancer with either selenium or vitamin E supplements but a statistically nonsignificant increase in prostate cancer risk with vitamin E. Longer follow-up and more prostate cancer events provide further insight into the relationship of vitamin E and prostate cancer.


Objective To determine the long-term effect of vitamin E and selenium on risk of prostate cancer in relatively healthy men.
Design, Setting, and Participants A total of 35533 men from 427 study sites in the United States, Canada, and Puerto Rico were randomized between August 22, 2001, and June 24, 2004. Eligibility criteria included a prostate-specific antigen (PSA) of $4.0 \mathrm{ng} / \mathrm{mL}$ or less, a digital rectal examination not suspicious for prostate cancer, and age 50 years or older for black men and 55 years or older for all others. The primary analysis included 34887 men who were randomly assigned to 1 of 4 treatment groups: 8752 to receive selenium; 8737, vitamin E; 8702, both agents, and 8696, placebo. Analysis reflect the final data collected by the study sites on their participants through July 5, 2011.
Interventions Oral selenium ( $200 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{d}$ from $L$-selenomethionine) with matched vitamin E placebo, vitamin E ( $400 \mathrm{IU} / \mathrm{d}$ of all rac- $\alpha$-tocopheryl acetate) with matched selenium placebo, both agents, or both matched placebos for a planned follow-up of a minimum of 7 and maximum of 12 years.

Main Outcome Measures Prostate cancer incidence.
Results This report includes 54464 additional person-years of follow-up and 521 additional cases of prostate cancer since the primary report. Compared with the placebo (referent group) in which 529 men developed prostate cancer, 620 men in the vitamin E group developed prostate cancer (hazard ratio [HR], 1.17; 99\% CI, 1.004$1.36, P=.008$ ); as did 575 in the selenium group (HR, 1.09; 99\% CI, 0.93-1.27; $P=.18$ ), and 555 in the selenium plus vitamin E group (HR, 1.05; 99\% CI, 0.89-1.22, $P=.46$ ). Compared with placebo, the absolute increase in risk of prostate cancer per 1000 personyears was 1.6 for vitamin E, 0.8 for selenium, and 0.4 for the combination.
Conclusion Dietary supplementation with vitamin E significantly increased the risk of prostate cancer among healthy men.
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high prevalence, risk of morbidity from treatment, and treatment-related costs, primary prevention of prostate cancer is an attractive option.

With considerable preclinical and epidemiological evidence that selenium and vitamin E may reduce prostate cancer risk, we conducted and reported the results of a prospective randomized trial examining the effect
of these 2 agents for prostate cancer prevention. ${ }^{6}$ Coordinated by SWOG, a federally funded cancer research cooperative group, the Selenium and Vitamin E Cancer Prevention Trial (SELECT)

[^0]began accrual on August 22, 2001, and randomized 35533 men into 4 groups: selenium with matching placebo, vitamin $E$ with matching placebo, both agents, or placebo.

Based on a preplanned interim analysis, the independent data and safety monitoring committee met on September 15,2008 , and recommended the early discontinuation of study supplements because of lack of efficacy for risk reduction and because futility analysis demonstrated no possibility of benefit to the planned degree with additional follow-up. ${ }^{6}$

As reported in the initial article, ${ }^{6}$ with a median follow-up of 5.5 years, the numbers of prostate cancers detected were 473 (hazard ratio [HR], 1.13; 99\% CI, 0.95-1.35) for vitamin E; 432 (HR, 1.04; 99\% CI, 0.87-1.24) for selenium; 437 (HR, 1.05 ; $99 \%$ CI, 0.88 1.25) for selenium plus vitamin E; and 416 (HR, 1.0) for placebo. Although these results were not statistically significant, the data and safety monitoring committee expressed concern about the increased risk of prostate cancer observed in the vitamin E plus placebo group, which approached statistical significance ( $P=.06$ ) and a statistically nonsignificant increased risk of type 2 diabetes mellitus in the selenium plus placebo group ( $P=.16$ ).

Since that time, participant fol-low-up has continued, allowing observation of additional events. On May 20, 2011, the data and safety monitoring committee reviewed trial data and recommended reporting the finding regarding increased risk of prostate cancer with vitamin E. This recommendation was based on final data collection from the study sites and coincided with the preplanned final analysis at 7 years after the last participant was randomized.

## METHODS

Detailed descriptions of the rationale, design, conduct, and initial results of SELECT have been previously published. ${ }^{6,7}$ The study enrolled healthy men at average risk of prostate cancer based on a baseline prostate-specific antigen (PSA) of $\leq 4 \mathrm{ng} / \mathrm{mL}$ and nor-
mal digital rectal examination (DRE) commencing at age 50 years for black men or at age 55 years for all others. Men were randomized into 1 of 4 groups: selenium ( $200 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{d}$ from L-selenomethionine) with matching vitamin E placebo, vitamin E ( $400 \mathrm{IU} / \mathrm{d}$ of all rac- $\alpha$-tocopherol acetate) with matching selenium placebo, both agents, or matching placebo (FigURE 1).

Participants without prostate cancer were monitored every 6 months with an annual limited physical examination including blood pressure, weight, and smoking status; participants who developed prostate cancer during the study were monitored annually thereafter. Participants were recommended to undergo PSA and DRE testing and prostate biopsy based on the standard of care in their community and in accordance with the participant's preference. To facilitate adherence, a multivitamin containing no selenium or vitamin E was offered. All participants were required to provide written informed consent and the local institutional review board of each study site approved the study.

At study visits, men were asked about new medical events in the previous 6 months. The primary end point of the study was prostate cancer incidence as determined by routine clinical management and confirmed by central pathology review. Blinded follow-up continued until October 23, 2008, at which time participants discontinued use of study supplements. Prostate cancer status was determined by self-report at each 6-month study visit. Medical records were obtained thereafter and clinical stage and diagnostic method were abstracted. The pathology report and tissue were forwarded to the SELECT central pathology laboratory for confirmation of diagnosis and for assignment of Gleason score. Median baseline and follow-up plasma vitamin E and selenium levels are included in the original report. ${ }^{6}$

Follow-up continued in an unblinded fashion at study sites from October 2008 until July 2011. The final study site visits included follow-up for
study end points and a blood sample from participants diagnosed with prostate cancer. An independent data and safety monitoring committee met yearly commencing with study inception, reviewing data on safety, adherence, and prostate and other cancer diagnoses. On September 15, 2008, the committee recommended reporting initial results related to the lack of efficacy of the agents on prevention of prostate cancer. Since that time the committee has continued to meet yearly via teleconference.

## Statistical Analysis

The primary end point was prostate cancer incidence resulting from routine community care. Cancers not centrally confirmed ( $17 \%$ of the total) are included in the analysis. Five prespecified comparisons of the 4 study groups were conducted: selenium vs placebo, vitamin E vs placebo, selenium plus vitamin E vs placebo, selenium vs selenium plus vitamin $E$, and vitamin $E$ vs selenium plus vitamin E. Although a 1-sided significance level of .005 was specified to test for the preventive effect for each supplement comparison and thus $99 \%$ confidence intervals are reported, we have reported 2 -sided $P$ values throughout because the comparison of prevention vs increased risk of cancer is a 2 -sided question. ${ }^{6}$

A proportional hazards model was used to compare prostate cancer and other cancer incidence between placebo and each of the 3 study groups with active agents. Men without the end point of interest were censored at their last contact date. An additional analysis was performed on all the data using a variable for selenium supplementation, a variable for vitamin E supplementation, and an interaction term. In all cases, the proportional hazards assumption was evaluated by assessing each study group $\times$ time interaction. The cumulative incidence curves for prostate cancer were generated accounting for the competing risk of death. ${ }^{8} \mathrm{~A}$ $\chi^{2}$ test was used to test the difference in the relative risk of diabetes. Data were analyzed using SAS version 9.2 (SAS Institute Inc, Cary, North Carolina).

Figure 1. Patient Flow Diagram

${ }^{\text {a }}$ Since the primary publication, there was additional review and 1 additional participant was found to have had prior prostate cancer.

## RESULTS

The current report includes data as of July 5, 2011. There are 54464 additional person-years of follow-up since the primary report, an increase of $23 \%$. A summary of baseline characteristics is displayed in TabLe 1 and an updated flow diagram in Figure 1. The frequency of use of DRE and PSA is displayed in Table 2; there were no differences between groups in the intensity of PSA testing, absolute PSA levels, PSA change from study entry to year 1 , nor rates of testing following study unblinding.

A total of 521 additional prostate cancers have been diagnosed since the initial report: 113 in the placebo group, 147 in the vitamin E group, 143 in the selenium group, and 118 in the combination group (Table 3). The rate of prostate cancer detection was greater in all treatment groups when compared with placebo but was statistically significant only in the vitamin E alone group (HR, 1.17; 99\% CI, 1.004$1.36 ; P=.008$; Table 3). After adjustment for the marginal effects of vita-

Table 1. Baseline Participant Characteristics

|  | No. (\%) of Participants |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Placebo $(\mathrm{n}=8696)$ | Vitamin E Alone ( $\mathrm{n}=8737$ ) | Selenium Alone (n = 8752) | Vitamin E <br> + Selenium ( $\mathrm{n}=8702$ ) |
| Age, y Median (IQR) | 63 (58-67) | 62 (58-67) | 63 (58-68) | 62 (58-67) |
| 50-54 | 355 (4) | 403 (5) | 337 (4) | 385 (4) |
| 55-64 | 5078 (58) | 5142 (59) | 5075 (58) | 5051 (58) |
| 65-74 | 2702 (31) | 2642 (30) | 2734 (31) | 2731 (31) |
| $\geq 75$ | 561 (6) | 550 (6) | 606 (7) | 535 (6) |
| Race/ethnicity White | 6862 (79) | 6893 (79) | 6944 (79) | 6872 (79) |
| Black | 1083 (12) | 1106 (13) | 1054 (12) | 1075 (12) |
| Hispanic, nonblack | 496 (6) | 476 (5) | 484 (6) | 484 (6) |
| Hispanic, black | 76 (1) | 103 (1) | 86 (1) | 96 (1) |
| Aboriginal | 27 (<1) | 22 (<1) | 41 (<1) | 29 (<1) |
| Asian/Pacific Islander | 128 (1) | 110 (1) | 111 (1) | 123 (1) |
| Unknown | 24 (<1) | 27 (<1) | 32 (<1) | 23 (<1) |
| PSA, ng/mL Median (IQR) | $\begin{array}{r} 1.1 \\ (0.6-1.9) \\ \hline \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 1.1 \\ (0.6-1.9) \\ \hline \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 1.1 \\ (0.6-1.9) \\ \hline \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 1.1 \\ (0.6-1.8) \\ \hline \end{array}$ |
| 0.1-1.0 | 4133 (48) | 4234 (48) | 4247 (49) | 4235 (49) |
| 1.1-2.0 | 2735 (31) | 2648 (30) | 2652 (30) | 2657 (31) |
| 2.1-3.0 | 1153 (13) | 1222 (14) | 1199 (14) | 1147 (14) |
| 3.1-4.0 | 668 (8) | 627 (7) | 649 (7) | 656 (7) |
| $>4.0$ | $5(<1)$ | $3(<1)$ | $2(<1)$ | $1(<1)$ |
| Missing | 2 (<1) | $3(<1)$ | $3(<1)$ | $6(<1)$ |

Abbreviations: IQR, interquartile range; PSA, prostate-specific antigen.

Table 2. Diagnostic Testing

|  | $\begin{gathered} \text { Placebo } \\ (\mathrm{n}=8696) \end{gathered}$ | Vitamin E Alone ( $\mathrm{n}=8737$ ) | Selenium Alone ( $\mathrm{n}=8752$ ) | Vitamin E + Selenium ( $\mathrm{n}=8702$ ) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Prostate biopsy, men ever having biopsy, No. Before unblinding ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | 1041 | 1046 | 1003 | 1014 |
| After unblinding | 256 | 268 | 267 | 254 |
| DREs per participant, No. Before unblinding | 3.20 | 3.20 | 3.20 | 3.21 |
| After unblinding | 0.64 | 0.63 | 0.64 | 0.64 |
| No. of PSA tests/participant Before unblinding | 3.87 | 3.88 | 3.87 | 3.90 |
| After unblinding | 0.84 | 0.85 | 0.86 | 0.86 |
| Geometric mean PSA (95\% CI), ng/mL Year 0 | 1.13 (0.24 to 4.41) | 1.12 (0.23 to 4.37) | 1.12 (0.23 to 4.41) | 1.13 (0.23 to 4.42) |
| Year 1 | 1.16 (0.22 to 4.82) | 1.14 (0.21 to 4.75) | 1.14 (0.21 to 4.89) | 1.15 (0.21 to 4.91) |
| Year 2 | 1.18 (0.21 to 5.08) | 1.15 (0.21 to 4.95) | 1.17 (0.21 to 5.12) | 1.16 (0.21 to 5.08) |
| Year 3 | 1.19 (0.21 to 5.25) | 1.17 (0.20 to 5.26) | 1.20 (0.21 to 5.31) | 1.19 (0.20 to 5.39) |
| Year 4 | 1.23 (0.21 to 5.62) | 1.19 (0.20 to 5.40) | 1.23 (0.21 to 5.61) | 1.23 (0.21 to 5.66) |
| Year 5 | 1.25 (0.21 to 5.81) | 1.23 (0.21 to 5.62) | 1.26 (0.21 to 5.89) | 1.23 (0.21 to 5.66) |
| Year 6 | 1.28 (0.21 to 6.03) | 1.23 (0.20 to 5.83) | 1.26 (0.20 to 5.98) | 1.25 (0.20 to 6.00) |
| Year 7 | 1.30 (0.21 to 6.27) | 1.26 (0.21 to 5.91) | 1.30 (0.21 to 6.22) | 1.28 (0.20 to 6.22) |
| Year 8 | 1.31 (0.20 to 6.52) | 1.29 (0.20 to 6.30) | 1.39 (0.23 to 6.59) | 1.35 (0.22 to 6.58) |
| PSA velocity, year 0-year 1 median (Q1-Q3) | 0 (-0.20 to 0.30) | 0 (-0.20 to 0.22) | 0 (-0.20 to 0.28) | 0 (-0.20 to 0.30) |

Abbreviations: DRE, digital rectal examination; PSA, prostate-specific antigen.
a Trial was unblinded on October 23, 2008. Data in the primary article are as of this date.

Table 3. Number and Risk of Prostate Cancers

|  | Placebo <br> $(\mathrm{n}=8696)$ | Vitamin E <br> Alone <br> $(\mathrm{n}=8737)$ | Selenium <br> Alone <br> $(\mathrm{n}=8752)$ | Vitamin E <br> + Selenium <br> $(\mathrm{n}=8702)$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| No. of prostate cancers <br> October 2008 | 416 | 473 | 432 | 437 |
| July 2011 | 529 | 620 | 575 | 555 |
| Hazard ratio, (99\% Cl) <br> October 2008 |  | $1.13(0.95-1.35)$ | $1.04(0.87-1.24)$ | $1.05(0.88-1.25)$ |
| $P$ value | .06 | .62 | .52 |  |
| July 2011 | $1.17(1.004-1.36)$ | $1.09(0.93-1.27)$ | $1.05(0.89-1.22)$ |  |
| $P$ value | .008 | .18 | .46 |  |
| Absolute risk ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | 9.3 | 10.9 | 10.1 | 9.7 |
| Gleason $\geq 7$, No. <br> Hazard ratio (99\% Cl) | 133 | 155 | 161 | 164 |
| $P$ value | $1.16(0.86-1.58)$ | $1.21(0.90-1.63)$ | $1.23(0.91-1.66)$ |  |

aprostate cancers per 1000 person-years.
min E and selenium, the interaction between vitamin $E$ and selenium was statistically significant ( $P=.02$ ), indicating no increased risk of prostate cancer when vitamin $E$ and selenium were taken together. The risk of Gleason 7 or greater disease was higher for all 3 interventions (vitamin E: HR, 1.16 [99\% CI, 0.86-1.58]; selenium: HR, 1.21 [99\% CI, 0.90-1.63]; combination: HR, 1.23 [ $99 \%$ CI, 0.91-1.66]) but did not reach statistical significance for any group
(Table 3). The elevated risk estimate for vitamin E was consistent across both low- and high-grade disease.

The cumulative incidence curves of prostate cancer by supplement group compared with placebo are presented in Figure 2. The difference in rates of prostate cancer between vitamin E and placebo became apparent during the participants' third year in the trial, at which point the HR was 1.10, and increased slightly each year
thereafter. The proportional hazards assumption was reasonable for each study group (all $P \geq .17$ ). The unadjusted absolute increase in risk of cases of prostate cancer per 1000 person-years compared with placebo was 1.6 for vitamin E, 0.8 for selenium, and 0.4 for the combination.

Virtually all men with prostate cancer were without metastases at diagnosis (Table 4). Gleason 6 was the most common grade over all. For those with more aggressive disease, Gleason 7 was the most common score. Stage and grade distributions were similar among groups.

In the initial SELECT report a statistically nonsignificant increased risk of type 2 diabetes mellitus (as defined by self-report or new use of glitazone medications) was observed in the selenium supplementation group (HR, 1.07). In the updated results the HR is 1.04 and is not statistically significant ( $P=.34$; Table 5). Table 5 also displays updated data on the prespecified secondary end points of lung, colorectal, and total other cancers, deaths, and grade 4 cardiovascular events. There are no statistically significant differences in
the HRs between groups, suggesting neither benefit nor harm from dietary supplementation with selenium or vitamin $E$ for these end points.

## COMMENT

Prevention of prostate cancer remains an important public health goal because of the relatively high incidence and the high likelihood of curativeintent treatment of this cancer even when indolent disease is present, ${ }^{9}$ and treatment related costs and morbidity. Although 2 large randomized trials have demonstrated that $5 \alpha$-reductase inhibitors reduce prostate cancer risk by $20 \%$ to $25 \%{ }^{10,11}$ the use of these agents is controversial because of concerns related to an observed increased risk of high-grade disease. ${ }^{12}$ SELECT was designed to assess the effect of selenium and vitamin $E$ alone and in combination as supplements to a normal diet on their ability to prevent prostate cancer in men at average risk. Other randomized studies have shown no benefit to dietary supplementation with selenium, lycopene, or soy in reducing the risk of invasive cancer in men with high-grade prostatic intraepithelial neoplasia on biopsy. ${ }^{13,14}$

In this article, we report an observation of important public health concern that has emerged with continued follow-up of SELECT participants. With primary end point ascertainment based on contemporary community practice across the United States, Canada, and Puerto Rico using PSA and DRE as indications for biopsy, the risk of prostate cancer at 7 years of median follow-up was increased by $17 \%$ in men randomized to supplementation with vitamin E alone, a difference that started to appear about 3 years after randomization. Although there is debate about how to best handle accumulating results after the publication of primary findings and the appropriate threshold for statistical significance, the increased rate of prostate cancer in the vitamin E group was seen as early as 2006 and continued until the present analysis (HRs ranged from 1.12 to 1.17 ) suggesting
that the current results are not an outlier observation due to multiple looks at the data. Extended follow-up with additional events has resulted in narrowed confidence intervals.

A biological explanation for the observed increased risk of prostate cancer in the vitamin E arm is not apparent from these data. The risk does not appear to be due to an increased bi-

Figure 2. Cumulative Incidence of Prostate Cancer



No. at risk
Placebo
Selenium
Cumulative cases
$85658344808178317471639940441833 \quad 70$
$86008360813178267456642540751829 \quad 66$
$\begin{array}{lllllllll}31 & 123 & 202 & 293 & 384 & 474 & 532 & 563 & 575\end{array}$


| No. at risk | 8565 | 8344 | 8081 | 7831 | 7471 | 6399 | 4044 | 1833 | 70 |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Placebo | 8592 | 8389 | 8136 | 7862 | 7486 | 6378 | 4035 | 1835 | 76 |
| Vitamin E + selenium vs placebo | 85 | 105 | 193 | 295 | 378 | 458 | 509 | 545 | 555 |


|  | No. (\%) of Cancers |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Placebo $(\mathrm{n}=8696)$ | Vitamin E Alone ( $\mathrm{n}=8737$ ) | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Selenium } \\ & \text { Alone } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=8752) \end{aligned}$ | Vitamin E + Selenium ( $\mathrm{n}=8702$ ) |
| Total prostate cancers diagnosed, No. | 529 | 620 | 575 | 555 |
| After unblinding for primary article | 416 (79) | 473 (76) | 432 (75) | 437 (79) |
| Diagnosed prior to unblinding but data received afterwards | 26 (5) | 33 (5) | 22 (4) | 17 (3) |
| Diagnosed after unblinding | 87 (16) | 114 (18) | 121 (21) | 101 (18) |
| Confirmation status Confirmed by central pathology ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | 444 (84) | 506 (82) | 474 (82) | 475 (86) |
| $\begin{aligned} & \hline \text { Tstage } \\ & \text { TX } \end{aligned}$ | 5 (1) | 9 (1) | 7 (1) | 8 (1) |
| T1a-c | 375 (72) | 460 (75) | 425 (76) | 391 (72) |
| T2a-b | 143 (27) | 138 (23) | 127 (23) | 144 (26) |
| T3a-b | 1 (<1) | 3 (<1) | 3 (1) | $2(<1)$ |
| Not staged | 5 | 10 | 13 | 10 |
| $N$ stage NX | 378 (72) | 441 (73) | 397 (70) | 393 (72) |
| NO | 145 (28) | 167 (27) | 166 (29) | 154 (28) |
| N1 | 0 | 0 | 2 (<1) | $1(<1)$ |
| Not staged | 6 | 12 | 10 | 7 |
| M stage MX | 364 (70) | 435 (72) | 399 (71) | 391 (72) |
| M0 | 159 (30) | 170 (28) | 159 (28) | 153 (28) |
| M1a-c | 0 | 3 (<1) | 7 (1) | 3 (1) |
| Not staged | 6 | 12 | 10 | 8 |
| $\begin{gathered} \text { Gleason score } \\ 4-6 \end{gathered}$ | 286 (69) | 310 (67) | 281 (64) | 281 (63) |
| 7 | 102 (24) | 118 (25) | 135 (31) | 124 (28) |
| 8-10 | 31 (7) | 37 (8) | 26 (6) | 40 (9) |
| Not graded | 110 | 155 | 133 | 110 |

$\overline{\text { a There were no disagreements. The cases not confirmed by central pathology review were either because no materials or }}$ inadequate materials were sent for review.
opsy rate prompted by changes in DRE, PSA, or unblinding. There was not a statistically significant increased risk of prostate cancer in the vitamin $E$ and selenium combination group (HR, 1.05; $P=.46$ ), suggesting that selenium may have a protective effect by dampening the increased risk associated with vitamin E alone, a hypothesis reinforced by the $P$ value (.02) of the interaction term in the marginal analysis. Tests of this hypothesis and other potential explanations for the results will be addressed by analysis of the effects of baseline plasma vitamin E levels and their interaction with baseline plasma and toenail selenium levels from samples collected from participants at study entry. Despite the lack of a mechanistic explanation, the findings show that vitamin E supplementation
in the general population of healthy men significantly increases the risk of being diagnosed with prostate cancer.

The current findings of SELECT differ from findings from other large randomized intervention trials that examined the effects of vitamin E supplementation on prostate cancer risk. The AlphaTocopherol, Beta Carotene (ATBC) trial reported a $35 \%$ risk reduction for prostate cancer in men taking $50 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{d}$ of vitamin E for a median of 6.1 years, ${ }^{15}$ although there are important differences with SELECT: (1) the participants of ATBC were all long-term smokers (36 years on average) compared with $43 \%$ who had never smoked and $8 \%$ current smokers in SELECT; (2) prostate cancer was a secondary end point in ATBC; and (3) men in ATBC were not screened so that prostate cancer was diagnosed at
more advanced stages than in SELECT. In the Physicians Health Study II (PHS II) conducted contemporaneously with SELECT, intervention with 400 IU of vitamin E every other day for a median of 8 years had no effect on the incidence of prostate cancer (HR, $0.97 ; 95 \% \mathrm{CI}$, 0.85-1.09; $P=.58$ ), although like SELECT there was no effect on total cancer incidence (HR, 1.04; 95\% CI, 0.951.13; $P=.41$ ) or overall mortality (HR, 1.08; 95\% CI, 0.98-1.19). ${ }^{16}$

Furthermore, both ATBC and PHS II were designed and analyzed as factorial trials, so the reported effect of vitamin $E$ is estimated across the secondary factor (beta carotene or vitamin C, respectively). In contrast, SELECT was designed as a 4-group trial because of concerns about the potential interaction of vitamin $E$ and selenium, for which a statistically significant interaction between these agents was indeed observed.

Given that more than $50 \%$ of individuals 60 years or older are taking supplements containing vitamin E and that $23 \%$ of them are taking at least 400 $\mathrm{IU} / \mathrm{d}^{17}$ despite a recommended daily dietary allowance of only 22.4 IU for adult men, ${ }^{18}$ the implications of our observations are substantial. Consistent with the original SELECT report, longer fol-low-up did not demonstrate a benefit for selenium or vitamin E supplementation on risk of colorectal or lung cancer or cardiovascular events.

Although modest benefits for vitamin E supplementation have been observed in a limited number of randomized clinical trials for Alzheimer disease ${ }^{19}$ and (as 1 part of a combination of oral antioxidants) for agerelated macular degeneration, ${ }^{20}$ no benefits were demonstrated for prevention of cardiac events or mortality, ${ }^{21-23}$ colorectal adenomas, ${ }^{24}$ respiratory infections in elderly individuals, ${ }^{25}$ preeclampsia in women with type 1 diabetes, ${ }^{26}$ or prevention or progression of cataracts or macular degeneration. ${ }^{27,28}$ Moreover, the increased incidence of prostate cancer seen in SELECT, the previously reported increased incidence of lung cancer with
high-dose beta carotene in both ATBC ${ }^{15}$ and the Beta-Carotene and Retinol Efficacy Trial (CARET), ${ }^{29}$ and the increased risk of colon polyps seen in a trial administering high-dose folate, ${ }^{30}$ suggest that caution should be used when recommending or studying high doses of micronutrients. As opposed to synthetic pharmaceuticals, these naturally occurring dietary constituents are part of normal physiology, and a $U$-shaped-dose response curve may exist where either deficiency or supraphysiological doses are harmful.

The findings of SELECT, ATBC, and CARET emphasize the importance of large-scale, population-based, randomized trials in accurately assessing the benefits and harms of micronutrients as dietary supplements. Because a statistically significant interaction was observed between vitamin E and selenium, we believe that caution should be used when designing factorial prevention trials in the future. Although factorial designs are appealing because of their statistical efficiency, interactions can make it difficult to evaluate the underlying effects of each treatment component. ${ }^{31}$

Furthermore, the fact that the increased risk of prostate cancer in the vitamin E group of participants in SELECT was only apparent after extended follow-up (allowing for additional events) suggests that health effects from these agents may continue even after the intervention is stopped, emphasizing the need for long-term fol-low-up even in trials closed before the planned intervention period is completed. Consenting SELECT participants have the opportunity to transition to a centralized follow-up study where annual updates to general health and cancer status are obtained either via a mailed questionnaire or data entered by the participant on the SELECT participant Web site, which will allow additional follow-up to further address these issues.

## CONCLUSION

Extended follow-up of SELECT participants shows that healthy men with

Table 5. Secondary End Points

|  | $\begin{gathered} \text { Placebo } \\ (\mathrm{n}=8696) \end{gathered}$ | Vitamin E Alone ( $\mathrm{n}=8737$ ) | Selenium Alone ( $\mathrm{n}=8752$ ) | Vitamin E + Selenium ( $\mathrm{n}=8702$ ) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Colorectal cancer, No. | 75 | 85 | 74 | 93 |
| Hazard ratio (99\% Cl) |  | 1.09 (0.72-1.64) | 0.96 (0.63-1.46) | 1.21 (0.81-1.81) |
| $P$ value |  | . 60 | . 79 | . 22 |
| Lung cancer, No. | 92 | 104 | 94 | 104 |
| Hazard ratio (99\% Cl) |  | 1.11 (0.76-1.61) | 1.02 (0.70-1.50) | 1.11 (0.76-1.62) |
| $P$ value |  | . 49 | . 89 | . 48 |
| All other primary cancers, excludes prostate, includes colorectal and lung, No. | 579 | 570 | 557 | 594 |
| Hazard ratio (99\% Cl) |  | 0.97 (0.83-1.14) | 0.96 (0.83-1.13) | 1.02 (0.88-1.19) |
| $P$ value |  | . 65 | . 54 | . 74 |
| All cancers, including prostate | 1108 | 1190 | 1132 | 1149 |
| Hazard ratio (99\% Cl) |  | 1.07 (0.96-1.19) | 1.02 (0.92-1.14) | 1.02 (0.92-1.14) |
| $P$ value |  | . 13 | . 59 | . 60 |
| Deaths, all cause | 564 | 571 | 551 | 542 |
| Hazard ratio (99\% Cl) |  | 1.01 (0.86-1.17) | 0.98 (0.84-1.14) | 0.96 (0.82-1.12) |
| $P$ value |  | . 91 | . 67 | . 47 |
| October 23, 2008 ${ }^{\text {a }}$ Diabetes ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | 669 | 700 | 724 | 660 |
| Relative risk (99\% CI) |  | 1.04 (0.91-1.18) | 1.07 (0.94-1.22) | 0.97 (0.85-1.11) |
| $P$ value |  | . 47 | . 16 | . 61 |
| July 5, 2011 Diabetes ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | 869 | 918 | 913 | 875 |
| Relative risk (99\% CI) |  | 1.05 (0.93-1.17) | 1.04 (0.93-1.17) | 0.99 (0.89-1.12) |
| $P$ value |  | . 29 | . 34 | . 91 |
| Cardiovascular events, grade $\geq 4^{\text {C }}$ | 969 | 909 | 939 | 943 |
| Hazard ratio (99\% Cl) |  | 0.93 (0.83-1.05) | 0.97 (0.86-1.09) | 0.97 (0.86-1.09) |
| $P$ value |  | . 11 | . 45 | . 51 |

a Date of data freeze for initial publication
berevalent cases at baseline and men who never submitted a form with a diabetes assessment are excluded from the analysis.
${ }^{\text {c }}$ Time to first reported cardiovascular event, cardiovascular procedure (eg, coronary artery bypass graft surgery), or hemorrhagic stroke, all men. Cardiovascular end points were not centrally adjudicated.
average risk of prostate cancer subjected to contemporary community standards of screening and biopsy who took a common dose and formulation of vitamin E ( $400 \mathrm{IU} / \mathrm{d}$ ) have a significantly increased risk of prostate cancer. The observed $17 \%$ increase in prostate cancer incidence demonstrates the potential for seemingly innocuous yet biologically active substances such as vitamins to cause harm. The lack of benefit from dietary supplementation with vitamin E or other agents with respect to preventing common health conditions and cancers or improving overall survival, and their potential harm, underscore the need for consumers to be skeptical of health claims for unregulated
over-the-counter products in the absence of strong evidence of benefit demonstrated in clinical trials.

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